The Nation.

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The Week.

THE Republican majority in the Ohio election has at last been settled at a little less than 5,000, enough to make a victory, but not enough to remove all anxiety about the inflationist movement. That is to say, it is not enough to dishearten its supporters completely, and we shall probably have to fight them steadily in one place or another from now to 1879. Their doctrines are taking with the ignorant and unreflecting and embarrassed, and they will be supported by a good many persons who would be glad to see the whole greenback circulation, if not the whole public debt, repudiated, as one of the results of the war which it would be well to get out of sight; and, of course, if the process of inflation were once begun, the total disappearance of the greenbacks from circulation would probably follow within two sessions of Congress. Our present trouble with this matter-and it is a most serious trouble, for it makes the value of all existing debts a subject of contention at every political convention-is, as we have pointed out elsewhere, the direct result of Republican carelessness and double-dealing with regard to the currency, and, for our part, we are totally unable to see how the arduous process of returning to specie payments is to be accomplished under the direction of such men as are now dominant in the Republican ranks. We are inclined to believe that hard-money Democrats, if they now triumph in their own party, are more likely to be able to accomplish it, as they are likely to be more interested in the subject and to understand it better than the Republican statesmen, who take it up only because they see the country has lost its interest in "outrages." The gains of the election in Ohio are, that it has discredited inflation in the Democratic ranks as "a good card," and strengthened the hard-money wing led by Tilden, and has dragged the Republicans through the turn which the fierceness of the struggle gave the discussion into open instead of half-hearted advocacy of resumption. We shall probably not hear any more from those lion-hearted fellows, Messrs. Sherman and Morton, that the Resumption Act of this year does not mean either contraction or resumption, but simply "makes greenbacks as good as gold." The action of the Republican chiefs on this subject reminds one of the physicians who practise either allopathy or homeopathy as the patient pleases, so that anybody can have himself cured by likes or unlikes, big or little doses, as his fancy or his convictions may direct. Mr. Conkling opened the Republican canvass in this State on Monday by an earthquaking speech at Albany. Mr. Tilden must be amused by the preparations made to defeat him.

Any attempt to predict the result of the election in this city would probably be, as the newspapers say, "premature"; but a good deal will depend on the action of the workingmen, who are supposed by the Morrissey Democrats to be disaffected towards the Tammany ticket, owing to the reduction of wages by the departments. The Tammany nominations which have attracted most attention have been those for District-Attorney and Recorder. For these offices they have put up Messrs. P. B. Olney and F. A. Smythe, both good nominations, while, on the other hand, the Republicans and anti-Tammany or Morrissey Democrats have put up the present District-Attorney, Mr. Phelps, and also renominated the Recorder, Mr. Hackett, who has been Recorder for ten years, and is now vigorously denounced by Kelly for his connection with the Tweed Ring, which was certainly unfortunate, though there is no proof of corruption on his part. Mr. Phelps is, we believe, an effi-

cient District-Attorney, and we have no doubt Mr. Olney would be too. The latter has the advantage of having for his partner Geo. F. C. Barlow, formerly Attorney-General of the State, and possessed of a great deal of varied information on the subject of crime and criminals in and out of politics, and a keen scent for fraud and peculation. Tammany has renominated all the judges except the Recorder, and for judicial offices the Republicans and Morrissey Democrats have also made good nominations, among others, Mr. Charles F. Sanford, a lawyer of reputation and character as well. The independent voter will, on the whole, "have a good time" this year, and if the tickets are well scratched and names transferred judiciously from one to the other, he will probably find that he is less troubled by the necessity of "choosing between two evils" than is usually the case in off-years.

General Butler delivered an address at the Cooper Institute last week on the financial question, in which he demanded that the Government, and nobody else, should "issue a dollar stamped on some convenient and cheap material of the least possible intrinsic value"so that "neither its wear nor destruction would be any loss to the Government," and that "it would never be exported or desirable to carry out of the country "-and to form part of "an American system of finance," and never to be "redeemed" or "redeemable." any more than a yard-stick or a quart; "always to be quite equal to, or a little better than, the average gold dollar of the world," and "always keeping itself stable and fixed, so that when all the property of a country adjusts itself to it as a measure of value, it shall remain a fixed standard for ever." We speak advisedly when we say that this plan is now, and has been for nearly a century, familiar to all directors of lunatic asylums who have had much experience in the treatment of the insane of commercial communities. It has, in fact, since bank-notes came into general circulation, taken the place in insane hallucination once occupied by schemes for making gold out of baser metals, which descended as a tradition from the alchemists. Every distinguished chemist has had to deal with it in one form or another. We quote it simply because it has drawn forth leading articles from the principal city daily papers, and also from the Financial and Commercial Chronicle, which pronounces the scheme "more seductive, insidious, and dangerous" than those of inflationist orators usually are, and sets about refuting it. That a man generally regarded as compos should be able in a commercial city in America to collect a crowd to listen to his exposition of such a plan, and that financiers should have to ponder it and point out the fallacy of it, is, however, we confess, a serious matter, because it indicates a very marked step in return towards the mediæval state of mind. When a civilized people discusses the feasibility of making an everlasting measure of the value of goods out of a piece of paper or leather with a stamp on it, it shows that some of the remarkable phenomena of the eleventh century are still possible, and that the appearance of Miss Susan B. Anthony or some other female publicist in the air on a broomstick might any day be witnessed, as the old chronicles used to say, "by great numbers of people."

The precise status of the "rules" as to the civil service has been for some time past involved in a good deal of doubt, owing to the total silence of all concerned with their enforcement or interpretation. A case has just occurred which throws some light upon this obscure subject. The postmaster at Bridgeport, Connecticut, has recently been guilty of some irregularities in the way of selling appointments, and on the 9th of this month a note was sent him by the Postmaster-General, written with that unfailing courtesy which marks all the dealings of the Administration with the corrupt and

venal, reminding him that one Osborne had paid him one hundred and fifty dollars for securing his appointment as route-agent on the Housatonic Railroad, and that one Howe (or his friends) had paid fifty dollars, or thereabouts, for the place of mail-messenger between Bridgeport and East Bridgeport. The note then went on to recall to the recollection of Mr. Dunham that "the rule of this Department is invariable in this particular," and to suggest that "the necessity and propriety of this rule would doubtless be apparent" to Mr. Dunham. Owing to the existence of this rule, the Department felt compelled to believe that some fitter man might be found for the Bridgeport office, and to advise Mr. Dunham that "notice has this day been sent to Senator Ferry to name your successor." Mr. Dunham, or his friends, now begged that he might be allowed to resign "without anything being said about it," and the Department "reluctantly consented." Afterwards, however, Dunham withdrew his proposition. Meanwhile, Colonel J. W. Knowlton, chief clerk of the Department, was offered the place, but he, being a shrewd man, declined to accept it unless "the Republicans of Bridgeport" consented, because "if it should appear that he is not as satisfactory as any appointee would be to the Republicans of Bridgeport," he would prefer to decline. The "Republicans of Bridgeport" have, it seems, informed Colonel Knowlton of their consent, and he will take the place.

There has been a great deal of talk in the newspapers about Messrs. Moody and Sankey ever since their return from England, and there are signs of a widespread expectation that they will repeat in this country the exploits which made them justly famous in England. But although they have resumed their labors as revivalists, there is evidently little likelihood of their making any great or fruitful sensation here, and the reason is obvious. Their success in England was largely due to the fact that their mode of treating religious subjects was a complete novelty, and a marked contrast, in freshness and originality, to anything ever heard in the English pulpit of any denomination. Here, on the contrary, it is perfectly familiar to everybody who has ever attended a campmeeting. Every church in this country contains a greater or less number of men who are capable of their kind of preaching-if not in the same degree of excellence, sufficiently near it to prevent their seeming markedly pre-eminent. It has to be taken into account, too, in attempting an explanation of their English triumphs, that there is just now a strong appetite in England for American oddities and novelties, and a strong disposition to admire them-a fashion, in short, somewhat resembling that which threw the Court at Versailles into ecstasies over Franklin's homely dress and plain, blunt manners. This accounts for the popularity which Joaquin Miller has enjoyed in the highest circles, and for the eagerness of the "thoughtful classes" in England to study the works of Walt Whitman. In short, the English mind is in a state of warm preparation for the arrival of strange things of all kinds from this side of the water, and we have no doubt that if, at the opening of the spring, a large body of American revivalists should go over and establish a religious camp near London, it would prove the most attractive resort of the season.

The Michigan Supreme Court has decided the liquor-tax law of that State to be constitutional. The principal objection made to the law was that a tax on the traffic in liquor was equivalent to a license of the traffic, and therefore in conflict with the provision of the State constitution prohibiting the legislature from passing any law "authorizing the grant of license for the sale of ardent spirits or other intoxicating liquors." There is now no prohibitory law in Michigan, the act which imposed the tax having repealed the previous law, which declared the traffic illegal. The question therefore was whether, in the absence of any legislative distinction between the liquor-trade and any other branch of business, the provision we have quoted made the taxation of the business illegal. The argument chiefly rested on the fallacy, which has a strong hold on a

certain class of minds, that there is some connection between taxation and moral approval—i.e., that the State when it taxes any business thereby signifies its intention to protect it, and so approves, countenances, and licenses it. Judge Cooley, in his opinion, however, shows the absurdity of this argument. No government, he says, ever acts on the theory that taxation and protection are coextensive. Some States derive their revenue mainly from real-estate taxes, but they do not on that account give any less protection to personal property; and, on the other side, taxation, instead of bringing protection with it, is frequently carried to a point of extinguishing a business altogether, as, for instance, a tax on imports so excessive as to amount to a prohibitory edict against those carrying on the business. A citizen is entitled to protection whether he is taxed or not, and, as everybody in this city knows, he must pay taxes whether he is protected or not.

The New York banks continue to ship Treasury notes to the South and West, to be used in the purchase of cotton and cereals, or, to use the stereotyped phrase, "to facilitate the movement of the crops." The last bank statement shows that nearly \$4,000,000 were sent during the week, making a total of over \$10,000,000 during the last two weeks. The effect on the bank reserves has been to reduce the surplus to \$5,700,000. With the banks so near to the reserve line, the loan market has advanced about 1 per cent. for mercantile loans-that is, where rates were about 5 to 6 they are now 6 to 7 per cent. The feature of the week in Wall Street has been the rise in the price of gold and the high rates for which gold has lent, both having been caused entirely by the continued scarcity of gold here. The price has been advanced to 117, and borrowers of gold have paid & to & for one day's use. These rates have unsettled foreign exchange, and it has sold at the lowest points of the year. Some gold has arrived here from Europe and California, about \$2,500,000 in all; but much more is needed, and much more is expected. In London, by reason of the withdrawals of gold for Germany and New York, money has become more active, and the Bank of England, on Thursday, put its rate up to 3½ per cent.; it is still losing gold, and a further advance is expected. At the Stock Exchange, speculation has been dormant. General trade has been less active, and this season's business has culminated so far as manufactured goods are concerned, although much more will be done before the close of the year. Altogether, it has exceeded in volume that of any season since 1873; the profits have been moderate but satisfactory, and houses which were sound at the beginning of the season are in better condition now. Those which were unsound then bave not found profits sufficiently good to recover solvency, and very likely there will be failures to fully the average amount, if not more, between now and the close of the year. The value of the greenback dollar has ranged from 85.47 to 85.83 (from 117 to 11612).

The English Admiralty have had to suspend the circular relative to the treatment of fugitive slaves by English men-of-war, which is simply a pitiful escape from a great blunder. They are now in another scrape nearly as bad, owing to the sentence of the courtmartial in the enquiry touching the loss of the Vanguard. A number of subordinate officers of both the Vanguard and the Iron Duke have been dismissed or censured, but there appears to be no doubt that the admiral was responsible both for the order in which the ships were sailing and for the rate of speed, but took no steps to change either of them. Nobody on board the fleet seems to have been familiar with the proper mode of signalling in a fog, and, indeed, some doubt has been thrown over the question whether there is any such mode. The admiral, however, has escaped reprimand, and this has dissatisfied the public, which is more than dissatisfied by the revelations the enquiry has made of the state of discipline in the navy. The papers all have dismal articles about it, and say that the state of things is alarming. It ought to be said in explanation, however, that what people are troubled by is not

the personal qualities of the officers and men, but the want of familiarity with their duties. As regards bravery and obedience, the state of the navy, even as illustrated by the loss of the Vanguard, seems to be all that could be desired, but the drill in the details of the service seems far below the demands of the highly complicated pieces of mechanism which ships-of-war have now become. In other words, the officers and crew of the Vanauard were not ready for the emergency. They apparently knew how to die at their posts, but did not know how to save the ship. The press comments on this have been made all the more acrid by the fact that within a few weeks the First Lord of the Admiralty, Mr. Ward Hunt, has given a strong opinion in favor of patronage as against competitive examination in making appointments and promotions in the navy, on the ground that better securities for personal qualities could be obtained in that way. It now appears that the fleet is very well off as regards personal qualities, and that what is needed is technical training, or, in other words, the very thing competitive examinations would help to promote.

The difficulty between England and China, which, a few weeks ago, seemed likely to end in war, has been settled by the surrender of China on the 7th inst. It arose through the murder of Mr. Margary, a member of an exploring party sent out by the Indian Government to open up a new commercial route through the mountains between Burmah and China. The English Government insisted that the murderers, who had the assistance or countenance of the local officials, should be punished, and that the late treaties with Western powers, which have never been communicated to the Chinese people, should be published in the official gazette, so as to make known to them that foreigners travelling in the interior were not trespassers. The Peking Gazette contains all the memorials addressed to the throne, all the imperial edicts, and accounts of all court ceremonies, and is sent to the government of each province regularly, and read by the whole reading class of the empire. Not one word about the foreign treaties, or the reception of foreign ambassadors by the Emperor, has ever appeared in it. The Chinese hesitated long, and at last Mr. Wade, the British envoy, had to threaten to leave Peking. The cause of their hesitation seems to have been the fear of offending the Burmese, to whom the Margary expedition was disagreeable, and a desire to try their new military equipments, which include iron-clad ships, rifled cannon, and torpedoes. The Economist points out very sensibly the inexpediency of the Government's trying to open up commercial routes in strange countries, because the parties it sends out for the purpose, not being traders and having therefore neither an eye for business nor the stimulus of self-interest, are not likely to be good judges of commercial routes, and are not likely, in dealing with the people along the line of their march, to display a trader's tact and patience. The negotiations with the Chinese Government are said, however, to have brought out the pleasing fact that the commerce and intercourse which have been the result of the late treaties have really created a strong feeling of friendship for foreigners in the maritime provinces, and a strong dislike to quarrelling with them.

The Economist also gives an account of the condition of the English money market which shows that it is not very unlike our own. The London bankers are at their wits' ends to find means of employing the deposits in their hands, whether they are paying interest on them or not, so plentiful is the supply of money, and so strong the indisposition to use it. All first-class English securities are unprecedentedly high, so that the return they make to investors at present prices is very small. Foreign loans are completely diseredited by recent revelations. The semi-barbarous borrowers, such as the South American Republics and Turkey and Egypt, can get no more money at any price, and there is even talk of a combination among the Great Powers to compel Turkey to provide fresh guarantees for the interest of what she already owes. The ordinary commercial bills dealt in by the bill-brokers are also, since the late failures, the

objects of great caution and suspicion, and American railways are under a heavy cloud, owing to events with which we are all familiar. So that the British banker has probably never been so hard pressed to find the means of making any profit, and there is a general indisposition on the part of business men to undertake enterprises of any magnitude.

There are further signs of the split among Irish politicians which was foreshadowed by the row that attended the celebration of the O'Connell Centenary. The Lord Mayor of Dublin, who rejoices in the emphatically Gaelic name of MacSwiney, and who is one of the leading lay members of the Ultramontane clerical clique of which Cardinal Cullen is the head, has issued a programme for the formation of a new party, whose war-cry is to be "Faith and Fatherland "-which, in other words, is to be Catholic as well as patriotic, but above all Catholic. To anything of this kind the 'Home-Rule" party, which contains a considerable internixture of Protestants, and is secular in its aims and methods, and is largely if not entirely managed by laymen, is of course strongly opposed; and Mr. Sullivan, its principal representative in the House of Commons, writes a letter to the London Times strongly denouncing the scheme, and alleging that it finds no favor with the Catholic population, who will not consent to be severed in action or interest from their Protestant countrymen. The priests, or rather the bishops, who more distinctly represent Ultramontane aims, have long looked coldly on the Home-Rule movement, and would probably discountenance any movement in which ecclesiastical influence did not predominate and whose ends were not mainly ecclesiastical. They are occupied heart and soul just now in trying to get popular education in Ireland, university as well as school, completely into their hands, and they are naturally doubtful as to how far the success of a secular party with Protestants in it would help them in this work. But the split is generally regarded as a sign that the infusion of a spirit of rationality into Irish politics may not be far distant, and that the leading Irish party may at last be brought into working relations with Englishmen and Scotchmen, and the priests and the MacSwineys be reduced to that position of subordination and reticence in which the best interests of every modern state demand that they should be kept.

The French public has been a good deal cheered up by the success of the first call made on the reserves of the active army to come out for a month's training with the army in camp. This reserve comprises all young men, between the ages of twenty and twenty-nine, who have either served their term of five years in the army, or have been put on the lists as fit for service, though not actually enrolled under the conscription. The "réservistes," as they are called, have turned out in great force, have behaved well, and have in the field been scarcely distinguishable from the regular troops, and have been dismissed to their homes on account of the vintage eight days in advance of their time, with very flattering general orders from their commanding officers. Men of all classes served together in the ranks, and the best of feeling appears to bave prevailed, to the great relief of the newspapers and the Conservatives, who appear to be surprised as well as gratified when any large body of Frenchmen do their duty and do not "rise" on anybody, or set up any new kind of political organization. But the sky is overcast by the announcement on the part of the Ministry, through M. Buffet, that it is going to support the system of voting by the scrutin d'arrondissement instead of the scrutin de liste, or, as we should say, of electing members for small districts instead of on a general department ticket. The object of this is of course to make the constituencies easier to manage by Government influence, and to give local notables a better chance. Which system would work better we doubt if anybody is as yet competent to judge, because nothing is really known with any accuracy about the temper or tendency of French constituencies under universal suffrage. Ever since 1848, when it was established, they have been under the rigid

THE ESCAPE IN OHIO.

WE should be sorry to have it supposed that anything we may say about the late struggle in Ohio is intended in any way to belittle the services of those who, on the Republican side, have borne the brunt of the battle in defence of honesty and common-sense. Too much can hardly be said in praise of Mr. Schurz, Mr. Grosvenor, General Woodford, the Cincinnati Commercial, and others, who have during the last few weeks been engaged in stemming the tide of folly and knavery in that State. It must be admitted, too, that ever since the fight became really and plainly a fight between hardmoney and inflation, the efforts of all those Ohio Republicans who have taken part in it have been such as to lay the whole country under heavy obligations to them, for assuredly there has been no State election for many years in which the whole country had so deep an interest. They have not simply beaten the inflationists in that one State, but they have forced the Republican managers in all the others into committing themselves fairly and unreservedly in favor of a return to specie payments.

The Republican party will probably hereafter appear everywhere as the champion of sound currency, simply because it has been proved in Ohio that the cause of sound currency is the popular and winning one. But, having made this admission, we must earnestly warn all friends of reform against the notion that the Republican party as an organization, such as it is and with its present leaders. is in any way entitled to the credit of the Ohio victory. On the contrary, to attribute to it any such credit would be a serious offence against the cause of honest government. So far from having by its principles or its management contributed to the result, it is fairly chargeable with the responsibility of the danger to which the business and good name of the country have been exposed at the hands of Allen and his associates. It has, in fact, prepared the way for the serious assaults on the public credit which we are now witnessing and are likely to witness, in three ways: first, by its dilatory, shuffling, and clumsy management of the finances during the first term of the present Administration, and its persistent refusal to treat them as a matter of prime importance; secondly, by its resolute and persistent refusal, during the second term of the Administration, when the financial situation had become perforce the main question of the day, to make it in any sense a party question, and demand adherence to a sound financial policy as a test of party fidelity; and, thirdly, by the retention in its leadership of persons who have no sincere convictions on any matter of importance now before the country, and whose leadership is, therefore, marked by the weakness and vacillation which are the usual sure concomitants of action which is not the result of conviction. The defence of the national credit cannot be conducted successfully by men who have no thorough acquaintance with the conditions on which it depends, whose history and training have attached them to a different class of subjects, and who, therefore, in a conflict like that now impending over the country, neither, as Cromwell said, "know what they are fighting for, nor love what they know." We have in a recent number of the Nation (534) endeavored to describe the way in which the party tried to shirk the currency question, and discourage its discussion, from General Grant's election in 1868 down to the panic of 1873. We need hardly remind our readers of the scenes in Washington which followed the panic. The President, after refusing to allow the reserve to be issued at the moment of panic, when it might have been of some use, issued it after the panic was over, thus giving direct and practical countenance to the inflationist theory that the remedy for our depression was an increase in the volume of the currency. When the subject, somewhat later, came up in Congress, the Republican party, far from taking a fixed and united stand upon it and producing a body of financial doctrine which might have been expounded to the country, and to which honest and intelligent men might have given in their adhesion, and through which the education of the popular mind could have been earried on, treated the currency as an open question, on which difference of opinion was fallowable. Accordingly, we witnessed

the extraordinary spectacle of the defence of inflation in its crudest shape by leading friends of the Administration and prominent managers of the party in both the House and Senate, to the great demoralization of public sentiment. Nor must it be forgotten that the germ of the inflationist theory and particularly of Kelley's 3.65 scheme is to be found in Mr. Boutwell's bold assertion, while in charge of the Treasury, that the Secretary ought to have the power of inflating or contracting the currency whenever, in his opinion, the needs of business required a change in its volume; in order, for example, to "move the crops" or "ease the market." This extraordinary doctrine, which this most prominent Republican financier did really put into practice, was never rebuked or discountenanced by the majority in Congress. It has proved in the hands of the Democrats a most fruitful suggestion, and the appearance of its worthy author in Ohio to combat it on the stump, reminds one of some incidents in the political history of the Grand-Duchy of Gerolstein.

So much with regard to the past relations of the Republican party to the currency. We recur to it because political morality is shaped and kept alive by party history. We are all interested in seeing to it that parties as well as individuals do not get credit which is not rightfully due to them, and do not profit by their own errors and shortcomings. We owe it to the moral sense of the community to prevent the assumption of the rôle of financial saviour by a party which has played fast and loose with the financial question, and encouraged or permitted all sorts of financial abuses and vagaries within its ranks when that question was completely within its control. To allow it, would be to release politicians from the necessity of having either principles or policy on any of the leading topics of the day, and make party responsibility the merest sham. There is, however, another and even stronger reason for not letting the Republican party use the honors and rewards of any recent or prospective triumphs of honest finance as a means of giving it the position of a reform party, and that is the absence among its leading politicians of any positive ideas or convictions on the problems now pressing for solution. They are incapable of conducting any reform movement for want of any interest or faith in the objects of reform. They are mostly what, for want of a better name, we shall call "horse-politicians"-that is, they are in their relations to the people on almost exactly the same moral plane as the horse in his relations to his owner. To the horse when put into the wagon, it is a matter of complete ethical indifference whether he carries his master to a gambling-house or to church. To him one place of resort is just as desirable as the other, and he is equally willing to go to either. So, also, a Republican statesman in our time is very apt to confine his statesmanship to "finding out what the people want," and, whatever it be, he is ready "to go in" for it. If they want, or he thinks they want, the South governed by martial law, he supports martial law; if they want, or he thinks they want, the South let alone, he preaches State rights; if they want, or he thinks they want, inflation, he roars for fresh issues of paper money; if they want, or he thinks they want, specie payments, he denounces inflation as sinful and idiotic-with no more shame than a horse would feel in waiting for his master in front of a faro-bank. Upon none of these subjects has he any opinion of his own to which he attaches the least value. If, on the other hand, he should find himself mistaken as to what the people want, he will face right about within a week with as much nonchalance as the horse would show in trotting towards the gambling-house if his master turned him sharply off from the road to the church.

We might fill a pamphlet with illustrations of what we mean from recent political history, without using such gross cases as Senator Morton's tergiversations about the currency. We will, for want of space, content ourselves with one only, that of Mr. Dawes, who is now one of the leading party chiefs and Senator from the eminently Republican State of Massachusetts. There was perhaps no more flagrant departure from the spirit of civil-service reform than General Grant's handing the party patronage in that State over to Butler in the Simmons affair last year. There is perhaps no more notoriously corrupt and corrupting poli-

tician than Butler. Well, when a determined effort was made by respectable Massachusetts citizens to oppose the Simmons appointment and protest against Butler's influence at the White House, Mr. Dawes carefully withdrew from Washington and declined to meddle in the controversy. When the State election came, he went home and stumped for the party, on the ground that the whole of the negroes at the South ran every day and night the risk of being murdered; and, by way of showing that he did not seriously object to the Butler element in politics, he went into Butler's district and stumped for Butler's re-election to Congress. As soon as, however, the voters showed by the election that they did not believe his stories about the condition of the South, and did not approve of Butler as a party man, he dismissed the slaughtering of the negroes from his mind, became to all outward appearances indifferent to their sufferings, and this year turned up at the Massachusetts Convention as the reporter and we believe the drafter of the following resolution, which he read aloud himself with much solemnity and emphasis:

"That reform in the civil service is a work which no party can give over or slacken, and for the elevation and purification of that service the Republican party will continually and faithfully strive, welcoming the cooperation of their opponents in whatever quarter it may appear, to the end that every corrupt and unworthy office-holder, without distinction of party, may be driven from his place, and that official malfeasance may be hunted and punished wherever the pursuit may lead or the blow fall."

He here denounces Butler and his work and ways and influence as heartily as if he had not one year ago urgently recommended a Massachusetts constituency to re-elect him. In another resolution, too, which we have not space to print, he warmly advocated the right of all the States to manage their own affairs without Federal interference, having abandoned the doctrine he held last year that such gross interference as had been practised in Louisiana and Mississippi was, if not justifiable, excusable. Now, we would ask all those who really believe that reform in administration, and especially in the finances of the Government, is the crying need of the day and the problem with which the American people are now called upon to deal, whether they seriously expect that the work can be done by a party managed and led by such men as now have the Republican party in charge-Morton, Logan, Conkling, Boutwell, Dawes, Cameron, Butler, for instance-men who have no positive convictions on any of the questions now ripe for solution, and hardly any personal preference for one line of policy more than another, or even any familiar acquaintance with the subjects in which the materials for the solution are to be found? We must remember that parties competent to take hold of the Government and carry it on successfully, and provide the legislation the times call for, have always been parties led by men who, rightly or wrongly, held firmly and bravely and clearly certain ideas on public policy, and had held them before the party was formed on them, and would hold them if the party were to abandon them to-morrow. It was in this way the Republican party was led in the days of its greatness. It triumphed because it followed and was managed by men who knew what they sought, and sought it eagerly, and who would not be refused though all the world gainsaid them -whose opinions on the great questions of the day were the same one year as another. It would never have carried on the war or abolished slavery if its chiefs had been a parcel of adventurers to whom all views came alike, and for whom no views had any more interest than the dice with which he wins his money have to the gambler.

THE RISING AGAINST THE NEW BOSS.

As usual for some years past, the fall canvass in this city is to be a three-sided one thore being a three-sided one, there being in the field not only a Demoeratic ticket and a Republican ticket, but an anti-Tammany ticket also. Exactly what the anti-Tammany party's political programme is, no one knows, pretty much the only information vouchsafed us on that subject thus far having been the hoisting of a large transparency in front of one of the headquarters with the bold legend, "No More One-Man Power; Let The People Rule," It is not only

the anti-Tammany Democrats, however, who call upon their fellowcitizens to unite with them in putting down despotism and restoring the "people" to their rights, but a large and influential portion of what we may call the reformatory press-that is, the press which is generally on the side of good government, opposed to the wiles and machinations of "bosses," and which always devotes a good deal of its time as well as space to the task of exhorting the impenitent citizen to rouse himself from the slough in which he is sunk and take part in the "primaries," and see to it that "none but good men" be nominated, and reminding him that the office should "seek the man, not the man the office." At the first blush, it might seem curious that the anti-Tammany Democrats, the leaders of whom are a rather unsavory set, should support gratuitous advice given them from such a quarter, but they have; and some very good nominations have been made by them and the Republicans united, and they will no doubt succeed in getting a good many thousand votes from the educated, reputable, and property-holding classes in the next election. That is to say-judging by these indications in the way of newspaper support which seldom fail in New York, however unreliable Washington politicians find them-the "good citizen" will turn out in considerable numbers to vote against the Tammany ticket.

Against this we have not a word to say. The condition of parties in this city is such that the best chance we have of good government is a balance of power sufficiently close to force all the factions to bring out their best men, and we believe that the necessity of doing this is so thoroughly recognized by all of them in most cases that the good citizen will be able this year to make up a composite ticket out of the three which will contain, for all important offices, excellent names-a state of things which would have been utterly impossible a few years since, in the days of Tweed and "Jimmy" O'Brien. When we come, however, to examine the arguments which are advanced to convince the good citizen that he ought to vote the united Republican and anti-Tammany tickets, we must confess to being somewhat amused at finding them consist almost altogether of the danger to the liberties of the people from the usurpations and tyranny of one John Kelly. This John Kelly, it seems, having succeeded to the power formerly wielded by Tweed, has absolute control of Tammany Hall through that of the Demoeratic party, and through that has gradually absorbed the entire government of the city. He is the "one man" who is so dreaded by his enemies, so respected by his followers; the "boss" whose careful drill makes the machinery of elections work so perfectly; who declines to "let the people rule," because he wants to do all the ruling himself. According to the Times, "the local contest over the judiciary this fall really turns on the question of whether the judges in this city are to be the creatures of John Kelly"; and, again, "The Kelly despotism, like that of Tweed, on which it is modelled, needs three things to make it complete-control of local administration, control of a section at least of the judiciary, and control of the officers charged with the detection and prosecution of crime," and the Times proceeds to show that Kelly has "nearly gained the first point already"; that he has just "put in nomination half a dozen more" judges; and that he is engaged with his "lieutenant," the Mayor, in getting possession of the police force. Finally, it urges the people to vote against Mr. Olney, the Tammany candidate for District Attorney, because he "owes his nomination to John Kelly," and that objection "ought to be fatal." The language used on the subject by the other anti-Kelly papers would be quite appropriate if John were a foreign invader instead of being a naturalized American citizen of "respectable antecedents," who is not even an office-holder, but simply a gentleman of leisure who devotes his time to "attending to his political duties."

Kelly is indeed the very type of the good citizen whom political exhorters in and out of the press are always calling upon us to follow and imitate. He is, to be sure, of foreign extraction, but for all that he has never neglected to go to the "primaries" whenever they have been called, and always urges his friends to go with him; and we venture to assert that he has never, since he became entitled

to exercise the right of suffrage, failed to deposit his ballot on the day of election. He is, moreover, a firm believer in our institutions, and probably in his life has never been heard to utter a sneer on the subject of universal suffrage or the majority rule or municipal self-government. More than this, he has always taken a deep interest in the government of his country, and his motives (which we know from the same source that we know those of General Grant the statements of his friends about them) are the improvement of the city of which he is an inhabitant and the general welfare of his fellow-men. That is the reason why he gets as much power as he can, why he nominates a judge here and decapitates one there, or, to put it as he no doubt would, why he "attends conventions and endeavors to persuade his fellow-citizens that Judge Stealem ought to be succeeded by a fitter man." Charges have no doubt been made against him, but, then, who escapes calumny in these times? He is a plain, straightforward man of the people, and if he has obtained all the power the Times says he has, it is through gaining influence with the people by "moving among them," by "mixing with their affairs," by knowing them personally and studying what they want, and not by holding himself aloof from them like a coldblooded aristocrat or "scholar" or "doctrinaire" or "theorist." And now the doctrinaires and theorists come down upon him and denounce him as a "usurper" for doing all his life what they have all their lives been advising him to do.

The fact is that there is no very great mystery about the power either of Tammany Hall or of the "boss" who for the time being "runs" it, and it is on this account that we can hardly be expected to feel much enthusiasm at the prospect of a rising against the present one. Within the memory of the present generation of men in New York there has always been a "boss," and at periodical intervals there has been a "rising" against him. Formerly it was Fernando Wood; then it was Tweed; now it is Kelly. over, there are certain facts which tend always to the production of "bosses" in this city. New York is Democratic and very wealthy, and is managed through machinery which is very intricate and difficult to get the run of. This machine must be managed by a set of men who devote a very large part of their time to it, and as politics is not an attractive profession to people of wealth and intelligence in this country, these men will be in the main poor men who are "after" money. Honestly or dishonestly, Wood, Tweed, and Kelly get rich out of the city treasury, and then, being men of property, they use it to advance their friends and punish their enemies. This process goes on for some time without attracting much attention, until the "boss" has made a good many enemies, when he in turn is denounced as a "usurper" and "tyrant" by the Jimmy O'Brien or Morrissey of the period, and with the aid of good citizens and the press he is "hurled from power" into ignominy and oblivion-or Congress. It is necessary, however, for the reformers and exhorters who wish to hurl the Boss from power to remember that it is a process which must not be repeated too frequently. In former times, the practice used to be to allow the memory of the last rising to die out before a new one was begun. New York is the home of two very different classes of people, being partly made up of young men-from all parts of the country, or born in New York itself-who do not know much about "politics," but have some ideas about decency and good government, and are consequently troubled at the things they see about them; and also of "old New Yorkers," who have lived long enough in the city to understand it, have little or nothing to do with politics, knowing them to be "rotten to the core," are utterly sceptical and cynical about reform, and very willingly confess in conversation that they think the whole thing is a "sham," and some of whom used now and then to volunteer the suggestion that "what we need is a strong government," and remind one another of Louis Napoleon and Paris with regret. By-and-by the younger generation grows up, and, having made money in its turn, sees the matter in the same way, and makes room for another generation of new New Yorkers. Now, when a "Boss" is to be risen against we must have the aid mainly of this younger, dissatisfied class, and as long as we have

about one rising in every fifteen years there is no difficulty. The young and enthusiastic can always be persuaded once in their lives that if they will only rise and hurl a "Boss" from power, all will be well-that there will be no more fraud or peculation, no more interference with the independence of the judiciary, no more Tammany Hall. But when they have seen it done once, and yet are made painfully aware that Tammany has not been swept away, nor is the judiciary independent, nor has corruption disappeared, but another "Boss" has come in to take the place of the old one, they cannot in reason be expected to "rise" immediately again. No community has the journalistic capacity for continuous indignation at things it cannot alter, and so, instead of rising as we would have them, they remain perfectly quiet. Rising against Bosses is really such a necessary and valuable last resort in New York that we should be sorry to see the practice fall into contempt through familiarity with it. There is, on the whole, very little danger that the people of New York will allow themselves to be persuaded into believing that the wild election nightmares invented by the press have any real existence. On the other hand, and it must not be forgotten either, if the people have made up their minds to "rise" against John Kelly, rise they undoubtedly will and "hurl" him into the abyss.

THE HIGHER EDUCATION IN SCOTLAND.

London, September 25, 1875.

HAVE been interesting myself during my too short stay in Scotland in the system of education carried out in that country. The parochial system, which prevailed in Scotland from the time of John Knox till the year 1872-or for nearly two centuries-is so well-known both in America and on the Continent that I need not describe it to you, except in the merest outline. The theory of the Scotch Reformer was that in every parish in Scotland a good elementary school should be established in close connection with the parochial church, the minister of which should superintend the education of the children, while the land-owners in the parish should bear the expense of the school. In each important town in Scotland he desired to see high-schools or grammar-schools in operation, in which the secondary education of the more promising boys from the parochial schools should be conducted; and in two or three of the largest towns universities were to exist, in which ministers, lawyers, and doctors, and the eldest sons of country gentlemen, should be educated in the higher branches of learning. Even before the time of John Knox the necessity of education was fully recognized by the inhabitants of stern Caledonia. As early as the year 1494, it was enacted by "The Estates" that throughout the realm of Scotland all barons and freeholders "that are of substance should put their eldest sons and heirs to the schools fra they be six or nine years of age, and to remain at the grammar-schools until they be competently founded and have perfect Latin, and thereafter to remain three years at the schools of art and jure (law), so that they have knowledge and understanding of the laws; . and what baron or freeholder of substance that holds not his son at the schools, having no lawful excuse, he shall pay to the king a sum of twenty pounds." It is strange to read this old statute, and to see how that astuteness which is still so characteristic of the Scottish race enabled them, nearly four hundred years ago, to recognize the paramount necessity of an enlightened education, and the importance, in those feudal times, of the hereditary lawgiver in each family having "knowledge and understanding of the laws." To this spirit may, perhaps, be traced the law-abiding character of the people which prevails to the present day.

But this old statute, which I unearthed from a blue-book the other day, and the reflections which it suggests, must not be allowed to carry me off my subject. The system contemplated by John Knox was instituted by Act of Parliament and carried out, but only in part. Schools were founded in every parish, and universities were established in the four towns of Aberdeen, Edinburgh, St. Andrews, and Glasgow, situated in the north, south, east, and west of Scotland respectively. But the middle portion of John Knox's programme was never accomplished. What he would have called grammar, and we should call secondary, schools have never found a place in the educational economy of Scotland. In each town in the kingdom a burgh school has been in operation from a very early period, but these schools are not secondary schools. In the larger towns they have become small universities, with separate faculties or departments and independent masterships (each master being a little pope in his own department), but without the power of conferring degrees; and in the smaller towns they have degenerated into mere elementary or parochial

schools, situated in towns and not in country parishes. The effect of this, as I understand it, has been prejudicial both to secondary and to superior instruction. The parish schools have attempted to do the work of secondary schools instead of attending to their own work as elementary schools, and the universities have come down from their natural position as the promoters of superior education to do all the work of secondary schools which the parochial schools are unable to accomplish. In the parochial schools you will see big boys and girls reading Greek, Latin, French, and German, along with little boys and girls learning their English alphabet, and in the Greek and Latin classes of the universities you have scholars far advanced in classics working alongside of others who hardly know the elements of classics, and who, in any other country, would be found in grammar or secondary schools. In these circumstances it is impossible to look for a high type of education in Scotland. You have-thanks to the parochial schools-the elements of an English education more widely diffused in Scotland than in almost any other country in the world, except perhaps America. But the secondary education of the country is of a humbler type, and superior education can hardly be said to have any existence. Scotch boys who are desirous of procuring an education of a superior kind must go to England for it. The refinements of classical education, such as are the staple of the education given at the universities of Oxford and Cambridge, are unknown north of the Tweed. The professors in the Scotch universities are men of the same mental calibre as those in the English universities, and most of the best-known among them were, in their day, distinguished members of the English universities. The raw material of the Scotch student is probably superior to that of the English student, certainly it is not inferior. But the school training of the English boy is what the Scotch boy wants. There are no schools such as Eton, or Harrow, or Rugby, or Winchester, in Scotland. There are no grammar-schools which can be compared with those of Clifton, or Uppingham, or Marlborough, or a dozen others which might be named. The best of the Scotch youth are drafted off each year to the English schools, and educated in them, and from these schools they proceed, like their English school-fellows, to the English universities.

The question which at present is occupying the minds of Scotch educational reformers is how they can improve their secondary schools. Three years ago, an important measure was passed by Parliament for the improvement of Scotch education. In some respects, even the first part of John Knox's programme had become obsolete. He contemplated that one school in each parish would be sufficient to meet the requirements of the parish; and he did not contemplate that the Established Church of Scotland would be split up into two hostile parties of nearly equal numerical strength, and that a Free-Church minister would be settled down in every parish of Scotland in opposition to the Established-Church minister, prepared to resist his authority over the education of the parish, and to establish a school of his own. It was to meet these two omissions in John Knox's educational scheme, and to make provision for certain contingencies which an experience of two hundred years suggested, that an Education Act was necessary. Many efforts during the last quarter of a century were made to carry some comprehensive measure through Parliament which would satisfy the people of Scotland. But, up to 1872, the power of the clergy of the Established Church was too strong for the reformers. In that year, however, the Act which now regulates the education of the country was carried. The object of that Act was to establish schools throughout the country wherever they were wanted, and these schools were to be managed by school-boards elected in each parish and burgh by the ratepayers. They were to be supported by rates, imperial grants, and fees, and in them religion was neither to be prescribed nor proscribed, but the question of teaching it or leaving it alone was left in each case to the determination of the school-board. By these enactments the land-owners were relieved from the burden of supporting the schools at their exclusive cost, and the clergy were relieved, much to their dismay. of the burden of superintending the education of the children. The clergy of all denominations are eligible as members of the school-boards if they gain the suffrages of the ratepayers. But no clergyman is ex-officio a school manager as of old. So far as elementary education goes, the Act is working well, but it makes no provision for secondary education. The old parochial schools being practically at an end, they can do but little for the higher branches of education. Under the name of board-schools, they have to attend to their own province, that, namely, of elementary education. At present, therefore, the secondary education of the country is carried on by the universities, by a few private schools or academies, and by one or two grammar-schools in the larger towns. The universities are, to some extent, degraded by this arrangement, and the authorities in these

institutions are as desirous as the public of improving on it. The education given in private schools or academies is never first-rate, the proprietors of such institutions being generally driven by the exigencies of fortune to the necessity of underpaying the teachers and overcharging the pupils, And one or two grammar-schools, even if they had a fair field and were not undersold by the universities, cannot supply an adequate education to a considerable country like Scotland. The establishment, therefore, of a good system of secondary education in Scotland is the question of the future. Elementary education of a high type is supplied by the operation of the statute of 1872. University education, if not of a high certainly of a wholesome type, is also supplied partly by ancient endowments, partly by state aid; but no kind of provision is made for secondary education. All the materials for a good system exist in the rough except one, and that one is the not unimportant one of funds. There are twelve public schools-i.e., schools under the management of school-boards-which call themselves higherclass public schools, and these twelve schools possess among them an annual revenue of some £22,500, five-sixths of which is derived from fees alone. It may therefore be said without exaggeration that there is no pecuniary provision whatever for secondary education, and the problem which educational reformers are endeavoring to solve is this: From what sources can funds be provided for this object?

There are three possible sources-Parliamentary grants, ancient endowments, and private subscriptions. Parliament has not been asked directly to sanction grants in aid. But the improbability of the House of Commons, in its most generous moments, sanctioning the expenditure of public money on schools which are principally used by those whose parents are able to pay, is so great that no legislator has yet been found bold enough to make the experiment. That source, in the present state of public opinion, may be looked upon as dried up. Ancient endowments exist in Scotland to the extent of some £200,000 a year, and if the trustees could see their way to depart to some extent from the expressed intentions of the testators, the secondary schools of Scotland might be placed on the best possible footing. But the trustees are for the most part men who are loath to part with their trusteeship. In not a few instances also they are men who think it more important to keep down the elementary school-rates by means of these ancient endowments than to encourage secondary education, and Parliament is reluctant to apply excessive pressure to them. Interference with corporation property may lead to interference with private property, and Parliament is not prepared to commence what might end in a socialistic war. Educational reformers therefore fall back upon the third possibility, and are beginning to think of organizing societies for the better endowment of the secondary schools of Scotland. The object is excellent, but the difficulties are considerable. People will subscribe sums of money when either their political or their ecclesiastical feelings are excited. But will they do so merely for an academical project? I wish these public-spirited gentlemen across the border all success in their enterprise, and I shall watch its progress with the deepest interest.

Notes.

GENERAL SHERMAN'S 'Memoirs' is to have what is ironically announced as a "companion volume," prepared by Gen. H. V. Boynton, the Washington correspondent of the Cincinnati Gazette. It will be called 'The Memoirs in the Light of the Record : a Review based upon Compilations from the Files of the War-Office,' and will be published by Wilstach, Baldwin & Co. Gen. Boynton, whose reputation for accuracy and probity stands very high, condemns Gen. Sherman's work as "intensely egotistical, unreliable, and cruelly unjust to nearly all his distinguished associates. -Gen. O. O. Howard is to contribute in three papers to the Atlantic Monthly his recollections of three of the most famous battles of the war .-A prettily illustrated hand-book for tourists, called the 'Railroad Scenery of Pennsylvania,' has been issued by J. B. Lippincott & Co. There are views along all the famous rivers of the eastern half of the State, and characteristic scenes from the coal regions. --- 'Kenny's Iilustrated Cincinnati' (Robert Clarke & Co.) is a more considerable work than the preceding, and fully justifies its title. It contains an excellent map of the city and a great deal of useful information. But we have seldom been more amused by any "art-criticism" than by that contained in the following extract from Mr. Kenny's description of the Tyler-Davidson fountain: "The central figure [of the eastern half of the upper basin] from this point of view is a mother, semi-nude, leading her half-reluctant child to the bath. The full bust is exposed as plainly as in the well-known Magdalene of the

great Italian master, the chromos of which are seen in almost every window, but the countenance and whole aspect are purely Teutonic. She might have indeed been the very Thusnelda whose love for Harmann, the great conqueror of Varro [sic] and his legions, has passed alike into history and into song."--- Dietrich Reimer, Berlin, sends us No. 8 of H. Kiepert's Physical Wall-maps for the use of schools. It is in eight sheets, and represents the Pacific Ocean with its countless islands (including Australia), and so much of the continents that bound it as lies between Calcutta, on the one hand, and Buenos Ayres and Porto Rico on the other. Its great currents are distinguished by appropriate coloring, as are also the various European possessions. The compass of this map is very unusual, and its execution is at once delicate and clear, --- From B. Westermann & Co. we have Part 13 of Spruner's 'Historical Hand-Atlas,' devoted wholly to Germany, the first two maps dealing with those intricate territorial divisions called Gaue: the other two showing Germany (1) at the time of the Reformation, 1492 to 1618-admirably colored; and (2) at the time of the Thirty Years' War, 1618-1648. There are also numerous side-maps, one giving the division into ten Kreise (1512), and others the plans of the chief battles of the Thirty Years' War, etc .- Sanders, the lexicographer par excellence of the German language, has just published an alphabetical list of those German words, native and naturalized, the spelling of which is difficult or disputed. This work and, much more, the same author's · Vorschläge,' which contains general principles and rules of special application to the German language, will have an interest not only for a few advanced students of German, but also in some degree for persons who, like the commission recently instituted by the Connecticut Legislature, have to do with English orthography. Dr. Sanders is conservative, aims at what he can get rather than what he would like to get, and prefers retaining one out of several authorized spellings of a word to making violent innovations, --- Mr. Fred. W. Foster is now contributing to the English periodical, Notes and Queries, an interesting bibliographical list of works on sword-play .- The November number of the International Review will contain a personal sketch of Professor Ernst Curtius, by Robert P. Keep, Ph.D., accompanying a first contribution to the Review by Professor Curtius himself, who has undertaken to keep its readers au courant with the excavations at Olympia, which he, by appointment of the German Government, directs.

-A special report (8vo, 105 pp.) on labor in America has been issued by Mr. Edward Young, of the Washington Bureau of Statistics. A slight examination suffices to prove the brave show of figures to be a sham very discreditable to the Government. We take a few samples from a single page (64) of the report. The price of "superfine wheat flour" in North Carolina is given for the three years 1867, 1869, and 1874, as, respectively, \$10 72, \$9 50, \$6 50. In South Carolina, the corresponding entries are \$13 25, \$9 62, \$9 00. It is evident at the first glance that these entries are blunders, or else that different qualities of flour are reported, which would make the comparison highly deceptive. The statement that the same quality of flour was, in South Carolina, higher by \$2 53 in 1867 and by \$2 50 in 1874 than in North Carolina, is absurd enough; but, taken in connection with the statement that it was only twelve cents dearer in 1869, it is sufficient to destroy the credit of the entire report. But there is much more of this kind. Thus, the same article of flour is reported at \$6 61 for 1869 and \$6 59 for 1874 in Virginia, while in North Carolina it was \$9 50 in 1869 and \$6 50 in 1874, a falling-off in one State of two cents per barrel, and in the other of three dollars! Again, while this artiele was \$9 95 in Virginia in 1867 and \$10 72 in North Carolina, it was \$9 50 in North Carolina in 1869 and only \$6 61 in Virginia. These are a part of the absurdities which might be extracted from a single line (the first) of this page, in which the figures for flour are given for three States. So far as we have examined the reports of this article for the remaining thirty-four States, on the pages following and preceding, the same hopeless disorder prevails throughout. We take a few other instances, still from page 64: Codfish, dry, is reported at 17 cents per pound in South Carolina for 1869, and 6 cents for 1874. Carry the news to Gloucester! Brown sheetings, 9-8 wide, of standard quality, while sold at 24 cents per yard in Virginia in 1874, were to be had in North Carolina at the same time for 101 cents. The same goods, bleached, were 253 cents in Virginia and 114 cents in North Carolina. New Orleans molasses, which sold for \$1 01 per gallon in 1869 in Virginia, and for only 90 cents in 1874, ro e during the same period in South Carolina from \$1 22 to \$1 25. Coal-oil in 1874 was 33 cents per gallon in Virginia; 41% cents in North Carolina; and 20 cents in South Carolina. We might take several score of similar blunders from this single page, but the above will perhaps serve to show what quality of work our Government is issuing in this line.

- 'A Chart of General Literature,' by E. J. Trimble, instructor in literature in Swarthmore College, Pa., has been published by J. M. Stoddart & Co., Philadelphia. As mounted for the wall, it offers too long a tract for even a near coup-d'æil, and it might better, we should say, have been divided into two or three. Longitudinal lines represent centuries and decimal parts of centuries, while horizontal lines under each recorded name show the date of birth and death sufficiently well. Horizontal divisions classify the names into poets, dramatists, etc. As this does not provide for the case of an author whose genius manifests itself in more than one direction, an alphabetical index is given, with dates and specific though abbreviated characterizations. It must still seem strange, however, to find Emerson set down in the chart as a philosopher only and not as a poet; and even Shakspere appears restricted among the dramatists. The American and English portions are naturally fullest among the modern ones, but the Continental have more vacant spaces than was absolutely necessary. In the gap between Racine and Scribe, surely Beaumarchais might have been allowed a place, and there was room, too, among the philosophers for Ampère and Leverrier. Among the Italian novelists D'Azeglio is wanting; among the historians, Cantù. Gervinus is ignored among German historians and essayists and critics. Mr. Trimble's rule of lettering is not easily understood. The only allusion he makes to it in his introductory explanation applies to the class "philosophers." "Those whose works are purely scientific and technical," he says, "and consequently have not passed into the literature of a nation, are placed in small type." This results in making Bacon and Carlyle (another instance of eccentric classification) pre-eminent among English philosophers, including Bentham and Darwin, to mention no others. If the works of two such revolutionary thinkers as these last have not "passed into the literature" of England, it is difficult to guess what business they have at all in a chart of literature. One is also inclined to ask why Rumford should not be emphasized as much as Franklin. As we do not feel that we have the key to this capitalizing, it is useless to remark that Mrs. Browning's name overshadows her husband's. The index is, so far as we have tested it, generally accurate, but it will doubtless bear careful revision. Sir John Bowring, for instance, did not die in 1858, but in 1872.

-There has been an interchange of letters during the past week in the Evening Post, in a controversy which everybody must regret, between an ill-advised friend of Mr. Anderson, the donor of Penikese Island to the late Mr. Agassiz, and Mr. Alexander Agassiz, his son and scientific executor. We call Mr. Anderson's friend "ill-advised" simply because he has rushed into print about a delicate and painful question without knowing more than one side of it. The School of Natural History on the island which Mr. Anderson hoped, and doubtless believed, he had founded, has just been broken up, and the furniture and aquaria sold at auction in Boston. This is certainly a very mortifying and unfortunate result of a very praiseworthy undertaking, and it is not surprising that Mr. Anderson should be annoyed by it; but he was wrong in allowing his friend to throw the blame of it, in his letter in the Evening Post, on the trustees, and to accuse them of want of courtesy to Mr. Anderson, want of respect for Professor Agassiz's memory, and, though last not least, a misappropriation of the "Memorial Fund" raised by the contributions of teachers throughout the United States in aid of the Cambridge Museum, in not using a portion of it to carry the Penikese school through its difficulties. The facts of the case are that Mr. Anderson's donation of the island and \$50,000 in cash, though sufficient to start and equip the school, made no provision for the payment of its running expenses. He fancied he had supplied "the nucleus of an endowment fund," but in reality the whole of the sum contributed by him had been, with his knowledge and sanction, expended by the end of 1873 in the establishment of the school and the payment of its expenses up to that period. Had Professor Agassiz lived, he doubtless, with his strong faith and great capacity for raising money, might have found the means of carrying it on longer. When he died, it came into the care and control of Mr. Agassiz, his son, who accepted the trust most unwillingly, both because he did not consider Penikese a suitable location for the school unless largely endowed, and because he had already undertaken the heavy responsibility of carrying on the Museum, to which he had agreed with his father to give his best energies and all the money he could command. He took the directorship of the Penikese school, therefore, not only reluctantly, but after an interview with Mr. Anderson, in which he informed him that the Museum must be his (Mr. Agassiz's) first concern; that Mr. Anderson must contribute \$10,000 towards carrying on the school for the three years next ensuing, after which, it was to be hoped, other means of support might be provided for it; and to all this Mr. Anderson agreed. At the end of the session of 1874 the trustees found

their funds exhausted and the institution \$1,329 60 in debt, and informed Mr. Anderson of the fact, whereupon he forwarded a check for that amount, and curtly announced that this was the last contribution he would make. The institution was thus left absolutely without means of support. Appeals were made in vain to the Boards of Education of all the States and to the teachers individually, and a guarantee fund of \$3,000 was contributed by a member of Mr. Agassiz's family, but nothing more came from any quarter. The Memorial Fund was, under the conditions of its collection, distinctly not available. Under these circumstances, the question presented itself to the trustees whether they should wind the school up or carry it on at their own personal expense-a course which Mr. Anderson's friend suggests in the Evening Post would have been only proper on their part, and which Mr. Anderson himself probably looked for. They decided on winding it up, on the simple ground that even if they had had stronger faith in its future, the Museum at Cambridge would need all the attention and money they could spare. How great have been the demands which this latter institution has made on those who have charge of it, may be inferred from the fact that the six trustees of the museum have contributed to it directly, or indirectly through the Agassiz Memorial Fund, the sum of \$347,000 since 1873, when Mr. Anderson founded the Penikese School, and of this the larger portion (\$197,000) has been contributed by the three gentlemen who also comprised the board of trustees of the Anderson School. This demand on their liberality will doubtless continue for some time. It is very unfortunate that Mr. Anderson, or the public, or somebody cannot be got to support the school; but it is very unreasonable to get angry because nobody chooses to do it, and because everybody thinks he is himself the best judge of the proper object of his bounty.

-In the Nation of November 13, 1873 (No. 437), in an article entitled the "Odium Philologicum," we endeavored to throw some light on the causes of the exceeding bitterness of feeling which is apt to mark all controversies about the grammar, spelling, and pronunciation of English, and of the tendency of such controversies to end in gross personal vituperation. At that date, a most shocking conflict between Mr. Richard Grant White and Dr. Fitzedward Hall had just come to a conclusion, in which the abuse became so foul that one of the disputants was obliged to veil his epithets in the obscurity of a dead language. We gave, as the result of such examination as we were able to bestow on the subject, an opinion that the explanation of the fury which is apt to mark philological discussions is to be found in the fact that "a man's speech is apt to be, or to be considered, an indication of the manner in which he has been bred, and of the character of the company he keeps. Criticism of his mode of using words," therefore, "or of his pronunciation, or of the manner in which he compounds his sentences, almost inevitably takes the character of an attack on his birth, parentage, education, and social position, or, in other words, on everything which he feels most sensitive about or holds most dear. If you say that his pronunciation is bad, or that his language is slangy or ill-chosen, you insinuate that when he lived at home with his papa and mamma he was surrounded by bad models, or, in plain English, that his parents were vulgar or ignorant people, etc." view of the matter has recently derived striking confirmation from one of a series of articles on English pronunciation which Mr. White is now publishing in the Galaxy, and which we noticed two weeks ago. In this Mr. White, by way of preparing for a disputation with Professor Whitney, gives an account of his own parents and grandparents, of his own early education and surroundings during his boyhood, and compares them all with those of Professor Whitney. Most fortunately, however, he is satisfied with his antagonist's beginnings, and concedes that better conditions for the nurture of good English speech there could not be; so that, although we have no doubt that if Professor Whitney joins issue the controversy will end acrimoniously, nevertheless this similarity in the antecedents of the disputants greatly increases the chances of peace. But we wish to call the attention of our readers to the fact that nothing could well be more delicate than the enquiries with which Mr. White finds it necessary to open his attack. The result has proved satisfactory ; but suppose that he had discovered that Professor Whitney's father was not a college graduate or the son of a graduate, and that his mother was not the daughter of a clergyman and graduate, and that he had not lived in cultivated circles in his earliest years—suppose, and it is not an extravagant supposition, that he had had to question the dicta or pronunciation of a "self-made man," the son of a Pennsylvania-Dutch teamster and of the daughter of an Irish liquor-dealer-how far could the discussion have gone before the "calling names" would have begun? How much of Mr. White's comments on the disadvantages of his early training would

"the poor boy" on the other side have borne meekly? We must again warn Mr. White of the danger of the pursuit to which he is devoting himself, and again ask him whether his investigations cannot be carried on in some purely scientific periodical.

-The controversies about the origin of "the tapestry" preserved in the public library of the old Norman city of Bayeux have received an infusion of fresh life from the Abbé Laffetay, the curator of the public library at Bayeux. The Pall Mall Gazette affords us an opportunity of sumining up the points of the Abbé's 'Notice historique et descriptive sur la Tapisserie dite de la Reine Matilde.' The vigorous defence of the old legend in this pamphlet goes far to settle the dispute. The Abbé holds by the old tradition that "the workmanship" is to be ascribed to Queen Matilda, the Conqueror's wife, which has been fiercely rejected by the historian Thierry, though he is willing to concede that its date is of the time of the Couquest. Mr. Bolton Corney (1836-1838) held that the work was executed by order of the Chapter of Bayeux Cathedral, and not till after the period when Normandy was reunited to France (1204), as was proved, he thought, by the use of the word "Franci" on the tapestry to designate the Norman invaders. M. Thierry, accepting Mr. Corney's suggestion as to the commission for the work having emanated from the Bayeax Cathedral Chapter, opposed his theory of the later date, triumphantly pointing out, with reference to the use of the word "Franci," that both in the Saxon Chronicle and in the laws of William the Conqueror the Normans are habitually so called. The Abbé Laffetay further remarks that the soldiers engaged in the Conquest were not Normans only, but men coming from many different parts of France. The opinion of M. Thierry that the tapestry was excented in London by English artificers is based on the fact that the Latin inscriptions which head the different compartments frequently betray a Saxon style of orthography; thus, among other instances, we have censtra for castra (eamp); Eadwardus, Wilgelmus, Hestenga, Ælfgyva, Gyrd, as proper names. But the Abbé meets this by observing that, as after a certain period in history it used to be said in France that there were no Pyrenecs, so about the time of the Conquest it might have been said there were no Channel straits, and that Saxons settled so frequently in Normandy, both before and after that event, that it was a question of degree only which dialect was most in use there. The objections against the earlier date, that the city of Bayeux was burned in 1105, when "everything which escaped pillage perished in the flames," and that the fables of Æs op represented on the borders of the tapestry were not known in Europe till after the first Crusade, are also plausibly met, and the Abbé urges certain details of dress and architecture on the side of the eleventh against the twelfth century date. The chasubles of some of the figures correspond with those on sculptured figures in the nave of the cathedral. It is the round and never the pointed arch which is portrayed in buildings. In the rude representations of the towns of Rennes and Dinan, the donjon tower, the wooden bridge, are of the earlier style of fortification. The Abbé also cites M. Leopold Delisle, who adduces a Latin poem of Baudri, Abbot of Bourgueil, of the date of 1079, dedicated to Adela, daughter of the Conqueror and Queen Matilda, wherein a description is given of a certain tapestry adjoining the apartment of the princess, and representing all the details of the Conquest. "There is so much analogy," says the Abbé, "between this tapestry and ours that in reading the poem which describes it we ask ourselves sometimes which it is that Baudri means."

-Mr. Stanley, leading the joint Herald and London Telegraph expedition to Central Africa, reports by way of the Nile, in two letters his arrival at Lake Victoria Nyanza on the 27th of February, and his exploration, in the sectional boat carried by the party, of most of the confines of that sheet. The best map for studying his route is that published in Petermann's Mittheilungen for January 4, 1873 (19, Band I.) As far as Mpwapwa he followed the familiar road to Ujiji, but at that point he branched off last December, and traversed a distance of some 250 geographical miles through a country lying east of the course pursued by Speke, and therefore hitherto completely unknown. It is now filled for us with difficult names of districts and peoples, and for the present may be best remembered as an elevated plateau having a mean height of 4,500 feet. between the Nile basin on the north and that of the Rufigi on the south, The passage was not effected without great peril from warlike tribes, with one of which a pitched battle was fought, costing several lives on both sides. Disease also made sad inroads on the party, and two Englishmen had been taken off by fever when Stanley wrote. In circumnavigating the lake he reached Mtesa, the residence of the King of Uganda, on the north shore, near the Nile outlet, and here he met Col. Bellefonds, of Col. Gordon's staff in the Khedive's employ, to whom he entrusted his letters. Stanley corrects some of Speke's observations, and substitutes Niyanza for N'yanza as more correctly representing the native pronunciation. But his discoveries thus far are trifling as compared with those which he has in prospect. He aims to connect the detached links of previous explorers, and will therefore confirm (by descending its outlet) the undoubted, yet not absolutely proved, connection of the Victoria Nyanza with the Nile. He is next to explore the Albert Nyanza and discover its watershed, settle the question of its connection with Tanganyika (which he still believes in), and finally pursue to the end—whether in the Nile or the Congo—those fatal waters amid which Livingstone was stricken down. For the next six months we may, if he survives, expect to hear frequently from him; for the military, if not the regular, Egyptian postal service now extends to the equator.

-The account furnished by the China Review of a visitation tour to several Protestant missionary stations in the interior of the province of Fo-kien, in Eastern China, presents a much simpler picture of the relations between the converts and the community around than that exhibited in our note on the Roman Catholic missionaries in the Western provinces. No guns, no crackers, no crowds, no sympathizing mandarins awaited the travellers, and their reception at a town about seventy miles from Foo-chew was as ordinary as that accorded to a pastor returning to a New England village after his summer vacation. The mandarins do not appear to be so vindictively inclined against the Protestant missionaries. The proselytizing work is nearly unmolested, and in some places tangible evidence exists of the hold which Christianity is gaining on the minds of the people. At Achia a church has been built large enough to seat three hundred auditors, to which the natives contributed five hundred dollars' worth of labor and material, four hundred dollars only having been furnished by the missionary society; and "behind it stand a fine parsonagehouse and school-room, lofty and well-built, raised by the Christians entirely at their own expense." The Christians here only number some forty adults besides their wives and families. This "insignificant result of eight years' labor" is explained by the assurance that "great care is taken to administer the rite of baptism only to those who are deemed thoroughly prepared for it." At Ning-taik, for example, two out of the seventeen candidates who offered themselves for baptism were desired to wait until the next visitation. At an administration of the sacrament on this occasion, the report adds: "While the prayer was being read, one of the recipients suddenly rose and quietly let down a neighbor's pigtail-it being as irreverent in Chinese eyes to pray with it rolled up as it would be in ours to keep the head covered." The missionary teaching has certainly won the confidence of even the non-Christian natives. At one station the travellers were informed that the natives in a neighboring village, being in want of a schoolmaster, had elected one of the leading Christians at the mission village to fill the office. Shortly afterwards the missionary received an earnest request, for the third time, from the inhabitants of a large village, that a catechist might be sent to reside among them. The evil effect of excessive opiumsmoking was frequently forced on the notice of the travellers. "Opiumsmoking and female infanticide were the two besetting sins of the locality." "Why is this and that house left to go to ruin? The answer is, Opium. Why are they ready to sell land to the foreigner? Money is wanted for opium. Why are there no girls? Because the mothers kill them as soon as they are born. What for? Because, as soon as they are grown up and begin to be useful, they will be married, and all the labor and expense bestowed upon them will be lost." The experience of the travellers on the point of general education is thus summed up ; "So far as the agricultural population is concerned, national education is a myth."

-The September number of the Deutsche Rundschau closes the first year of its existence. The enterprise has, on the whole, been a successful one, the editor claiming a circulation of 9,000, and being able to point, for the first year, to a list of contributors which includes such names as Auerbach, Gutzkow, Spielhagen, Sybel, Lasker, Eduard von Hartmann, Max Müller, Wm. D. Whitney, Osca: Schmidt, Schweinfurth, Rohlfs, etc. In the next volume articles are to appear by Dr. Nachtigal, Haeckel, Von Holtzendorf, Carriere, and other writers of equal distinction. While a literary venture counting on the support of the most eminent authors of Germany may be said to carry success with it, it must be confessed that so far there has been a certain lack of evenness in the quality of the articles of the Rundschau not observable in its unsurpassed model, the Revue des Deux Mondes. Thus, the September number contains an article on the criminal classes of Vienna which would be considered reading matter of the lightest kind in any of our American magazines. Moreover, although it has not a line on theatres or concerts, in marked contrast to the earlier |

numbers, it is entirely wanting in scientific articles, if we except a very short critical notice of Dr. Fritz Schultze's 'Kant und Darwin,' by Oscar Schmidt. Nearly all the articles will, however, repay perusal, the most interesting being an extract from the memoirs of General von Brandt, 'Ueber die Märztage des Jahres 1848 in Posen,' which gives a graphic account of an interview with the Polish general Microslawski. Professor Alfred Woltmann discusses, with his usual discrimination, some paintings of Giorgione and Paul Veronese; Dr. Felix Dahn writes about "Altgermanisches Heidenthum in der christlichen Teufels-Sage"; Vámbéry talks entertainingly about modern Mohammedan princes; and Julian Schmidt's "Schiller in seinen Briefen" treats of a subject of which Germans apparently never tire. The book-reviews by Friedrich Kreyssig are not particularly noticeable; it may be doubted whether this department of the Rundschau ought to be exclusively confided to one writer. In the political review American affairs, as is so often the case with German journalists, prove a stumbling-block. Tweed, happily, does not yet enjoy his spoils "in peace and liberty," as is taken for granted by

-lt is well known that considerable dissatisfaction has been felt of late years with the progress of the great series of the 'Monumenta Germania,' projected by the distinguished statesman Von Stein, and conducted for fifty years by Dr. Pertz. It was too gigantic a load for one man, and as he is now quite advanced in years, its direction has been entrusted to a commission, of which Pertz, Wattenbach, Euler, Dümmler, and Nitzsch are members; other members have been nominated by the Berlin Academy (Mommsen and Waitz), the Vienna Academy (Sickel and Stumpf-Brentano), and the Munich Academy (Giesebrecht and Hegel). This commission held its first meeting in April, in Berlin. Prof. Waitz was elected president, and Prof. Mommsen, secretary. The work is now to be divided up, for more rapid and efficient administration. Mommsen is to have charge of the literature of the transition period between the Roman and the Germanic; Waitz has for the present the later Scriptores, as well as the temporary charge of the Leges; Sickel, the Diplomata; Wattenbach, the Epistola, and Dümmler the Antiquitates. With this commission begins a new era in the enterprise. A smaller form is, by the way, to be employed, as far as practicable, instead of the immense, clumsy volumes of the old series.

DR. ROWLAND WILLIAMS.*

R. WILLIAMS'S name was forced into undue prominence because he was one of the two most obnoxious writers in the celebrated volume of 'Essays and Reviews' which made such a noise fifteen years ago, and gained the unprecedented circulation, for a theological work, of over 24,000 copies. He became, in his day, the most prominent advocate of freedom for Biblical investigation in the English Church. He was pursued with relentless vigor by the late Bishop Wilberforce and others. Every effort was made to secure his condemnation in the ecclesiastical courts; he was compelled to withdraw from his professorship of theology in a Welsh college; the Bishop of Salisbury would gladly have refused to institute him as Vicar of Broadchalke if he had been able to do so; he had no organ; he was so constantly persecuted for opinions which he did not hold that friends kept aloof from him; he did not have the ecclesiastical position which would enable him to say with the best effect what it was most important for him to say; everything was done to silence him; and so it happened that the man who was the instrument of most signal benefit to the Anglican Church, and was, in fact, one of its most distinguished divines, was allowed to rust out in a rural parish and die in comparative neglect. The same thing happened to Keble, but under very different circumstances. The one attempted to restore free enquiry to the place assigned to it by the English reformers and divines; the other instituted the Tractarian movement, and sought to bring out more fully the great Catholic ideas. Each one helped to continue the comprehensiveness of religious thought which belongs to a national church. Whatever obloquy may have been heaped upon Rowland Williams was borne silently. He saw beyond the present. He said: "I expect, when I have been dead one hundred years, some antiquarian will discover that I was all along doing the best, upon a given state of literary phenomena and circumstances, for the Church of England"; and when, in his last illness, life was ebbing fast, he remarked: "I do not know that there is much more that I could have done; but there are some things I should like to have said, if I had had the right place to say them in."

He was born, Aug. 16, 1817, at Halkyn, in Flintshire, Wales. He was

^{* &#}x27;The Life and Letters of Rowland Williams, D.D.; with extracts from his Note-Books. Edited by his Wife.' Lordon: H. S. King & Co.; New York: T. Whittaker. Two volumes 12mo, pp. 426, 480. 1674.

the son of a Welsh clergyman and became one of the most enthusiastic supporters of Welsh interests in that Principality. He was a really religious boy, who dared to kneel down to say his prayers in the long chamber at Eton; a good scholar, and a great reader. He went to Cambridge in 1835, was a student of King's College, and afterwards tutor and fellow at the same for many years, gaining a brilliant reputation as a scholar, and acknowledged in 1845 to be "the only great Aristotelian lecturer in Cambridge." In early life his tendencies were High-Church, but never exclusively so. He felt that it was not right to submit to a theology in defiance of reason or in disregard of Scripture, but he never yielded in the least to those who would be disloyal to the Church. "Tilting against the doctrines of our Church is not an employment," he wrote in 1868, "with which I can ever have the slightest sympathy." When it was likely that he might be condemned by the Court of Arches, he wrote to one who counselled separation from the Church that "to obtain a legal verdict of immunity in the national Church for freedom of Biblical investigation would be a germ of much more, and better, than forming a new sect."

He won his first laurels as a literary man in the Quarterly Review, Lockhart regarding his contributions as "brilliant and masterly," and as the author of an essay on Christianity and Hinduism which was subsequently expanded into a treatise and has now become a classic work on the Hindu system of religion. It at once received the highest commendation from scholars like Bunsen, Ewald, and Max Müller, and is the class-book for the missionaries to India on this subject. These paved the way to that life of active thought on the philosophy of religion, and on the placing of religious truth upon a more reasonable basis, and one not in conflict with modern life, which he was destined to lead. He removed from Cambridge to take the substantial charge of St. David's Theological College at Lampeter, in Wales, in the spring of 1850, and in that rough country, and in the isolation from men which develops originality and strength of thought, worked out the opinions and purpose which marked his subsequent life. At that day the English Church had been helped out of the ecclesiastical quagmire of the last century in one direction by the Tractarian movement, but was very generally innocent of the advance in scientific Biblical criticism which had taken place in Germany, and which had been foreshadowed by the great English divines of the seventeenth century. Mr. Williams, made D.D. at Cambridge in 1857, felt that this stagnation of Biblical study was a reproach upon the Church. The intelligent laity were in advance of the clergy in the knowledge of modern criticism, and the danger of general scepticism was great and imminent. He determined to break the ice and show that theological criticism and intelligent, undogmatic thinking had not yet died out of his Church. He delivered his opinions in the shape of sermons on Rational Godliness at Cambridge without causing disturbance and without raising the cry of heresy. It was reserved for his own bishop, the venerable but weak Dr. Ollivant, to scent the heresy, misquote the professor, and stir up the clergy against him. The late Bishop Thirlwall, who held similar opinions as a scholar, at first gave him a certain judicial support, but finally charged against him. This sealed his fate, took away all chance of promotion to the Welsh episcopate, broke up to a great extent his usefulness at Lampeter, and made the English public suspicious of his teachings. His opinions have now been largely readopted in the English Church as its permitted teaching, and have been made most influential and pervading in England by the very men who fought most doggedly against them.

Though not the editor, Dr. Williams was a moving spirit in the 'Essays and Reviews,' which did so much to revolutionize the methods of Biblical study in England and America. He thus states the origin of that celebrated volume:

"Wilson, to my knowledge, first projected a theological review to be of the liberal, but chiefly literary, type. He got promises of help from Jowett and myself. I said I would review Bunsen and Renan, the latter being then only as yet in his philological stage. Finding we should not be numerically strong enough for the staff of a review, we agreed on a volume. Jowett got Temple to join; I got Charles Goodwin. . . My own essay was written rather with the idea of a review still open, which accounts for the style; but it did not seem to require much change. Temple's essay was a recast of two university sermons. I never saw the preface before the book was published. . . . Baden Powell was, I think, the latest recruit when our numbers seemed hardly adequate. Wilson was the editor."

It is hardly possible to realize the tremendous excitement into which the ecclesiastical Britons went over this book. It contained nothing new, nothing which had not been intimated or stated by English clergymen of an earlier day, but it happened to be the starting-point for an ecclesiastical panic. "What we meant," says Dr. Williams, "was a literary combination

with an undefined bearing on speculative theology as handled by scholars. "Many things in some of the essays, and some things in all of them, only became invidious by being dragged into juxtaposition with pieces in the others, which gave them a cross light, and sometimes a perverting one. There was never any common league against any part of the Church's doctrines or formularies, nor any common understanding as against the reality of miracles." While the tempest of persecution raged, the essavists kept a dignified silence. "When we got, two of us, into court, not a word of an explanatory nature could be said, and the lawyers managed it their own way." But the impetus given to the circulation of the book by the prosecution of Dr. Williams and Mr. Wilson created thousands of readers : then replies were necessary; admissions were made; public religious opinion was educated; and though Dr. Williams, not silenced nor condemned, was nevertheless kept from any position of influence, the work which he initiated in a sermon at Cambridge in 1854 on the relation of Scripture to modern science and criticism, was consummated in the placing of religious truth on a more reasonable basis, in taking away the great repreach of English theology, and even in the elevation of three of the celebrated septem anti-Christum to high places of trust in the Anglican Church. Dr. Temple as Bishop of Exeter, Dr. Pattison as rector of one Oxford college, and Dr. Jowett as the religious head of another, show the reaction.

Dr. Williams passed the last ten years of his life in obscurity, but by sheer force of inward strength he was raising himself, in spite of everything, to the position of a leader whom men sought because he had something to give them, when he died suddenly from a cold, January 18, 1870, lamented by none with more sorrow than by his humble Broadchalke parishioners. He had the companionship of Bunsen, Milman, Ewald, and men of that stamp, and his life and letters, edited by his wife with unusual fidelity, give a picture of the men and religious movements of the last forty years in Eogland, and of the growth and variety of his own opinions, as strongly marked, as brilliant, and as interesting as Stanley's life of Dr. Arnold.

PERSIAN HISTORY.*

FEW historical subjects can be imagined more interesting than the vicissitudes of Persia. The meteoric rise of Cyrus, who in the short space of thirty years founded an empire stretching from the Ægean nearly to the Indus; the romantic episode of the Grecian wars, which prevented that empire from becoming the dominant power of Europe as it was of Asia; its sudden extinction under the apparently hopeless assaults of Alexander; the Grecian and Parthian kingdoms founded on its ruins, which for centuries resisted more or less successfully the encroachments of allpowerful Rome; its marvellously sudden resurrection under the Sassanian monarchs, who for four hundred years revived the glories of the great king. to fall at last, as suddenly as they had risen, under the aggressive energy of Omar and his Arabs-all this affords an unequalled opportunity for picturesque narrative and philosophical investigation. The field has been assiduously cultivated, for, besides the intrinsic interest of the subject, its inseparable connection with Greece and Rome has made it a favorite study with historians, and Grote and Rawlinson and Gibbon have left few sources of information unexplored.

The English reader is thus abundantly supplied with accounts of the external history of the Persian race, but there is lacking what would be even more interesting and important: a careful analysis of the mythical period of Aryan development, with a philosophical investigation into the origin, growth, and modifications of the Mazdean religion-perhaps the most perfect that the unassisted mind of man has ever evolved. As a code for practical guidance through life, the system of Zoroaster has never been surpassed, and its influence in training the Persian race to its magnificent development is a subject worthy of the labors of the profoundest historian. Thanks to the researches of Anquetil-Duperron, Bournouf, Spiegel, Westergaard, Haug, West, Oppert, and other enthusiastic scholars, the materials for this now exist in abundance, and few ancient faiths can be more thoroughly traced in their successive stages than Mazdeism as shown in what remains to us of the Avesta u Zend, together with the Pehlevi and Pazand religious books-the Minokhired, the Dinkard, the Bundehesh, the Sad-der, etc. Something of this Rawlinson has attempted in his 'Five Monarchies,' but his treatment of it is necessarily limited in scope and unnecessarily imperfeet in execution, and there is still room for a writer who, by careful comparison of Vedism with Mazdeism, shall seek to trace the outlines of the earliest religious formulas of our Aryan race, and shall follow their development step by step to the Zarvanism of the modern Parsee. If he can ap-

^{*} Ancient History from the Monuments: Persia from the earliest period to the Arab Conquest. By W. S. W. Vaux, M.A., F.R.S.' 1 vol. 18mo. New York: Scribner, Armstrong & Co. 1877.

proach the subject without prejudices and preconceptions, he will be abundantly rewarded with the noblest ideas of the relations between God and man, the government of the universe, and the duty of man to his fellows. At every step, moreover, he will be met with startling coincidences between Mazdeism and Judaism, which suggest a community of origin ethnologically impossible, and which explain why the Jews, ordinarily so fiercely intolerant, could yet recognize in Cyrus the Lord's anointed, while Cyrus could see in Jehovah only another name for Ormazd.

Such being the inviting field which awaits a competent scholar, we took up Mr. Vaux's 'History of Persia' "from the monuments" in the full expectation of finding it fill an acknowledged gap in English literature. The author is a gentleman of no mean repute, Vice-President of the Numismatic Society and Secretary of the Royal Society of Literature, and as the "monuments," with the single exception of the Behistun inscription, have thrown singularly little light on Persian history, we naturally supposed that his efforts would be turned in those directions in which modern scholarship, by interpreting the religious "monuments" of Persia, has given scope for original research and thought. Mr. Vaux, however, has missed his opportunity-in fact, he appears to be too prejudiced or too incompetent to recognize that such an opportunity existed. He passes over, virtually, the whole legendary and mythical period, as though the Peshdadians and Kavas, Yima the Fair, and Thraetaona and Keresaspa and Kava Vistaspa were not as necessary to a comprehension of Persian thought as Hercules and Jason and Perseus are to that of Greece-to say nothing of the poetry that has crystallized around them in the Shahnameh. He even ignores the Median history, which is an indispensable precursor to that of the Achæmenidæ, and starts boldly on his task with the well-worn story of the conquests of Cyrus, disposing of all that goes before in the following fashion, which sufficiently illustrates his critical faculty and his comprehension of historical phi-

"How Cyrus attained to this pre-eminence has been much discussed, but we do not really want more than the notice in the Bible, which is remarkably clear and graphic: 'Then I lifted up mine eyes and saw, and behold, there stood before the river a ram which had two horns, and the two horns were high, but one was higher than the other, and the higher came up last. I saw the ram pushing westward and northward and southward, so that no beasts might stand before him, neither was there any that could deliver out of his hand; but he did according to his will and became great.' And again: 'The ram which thou sawest having two horns are the kings of Media and Persia'" (p. 18).

Such being Mr. Vaux's idea of "history from the monuments," we are not surprised to find that he cannot spare room for translations or abstracts of what few inscriptions have been deciphered (except a very meagre account of that at Behistun, inserted in an architectural chapter remote from its historical position), but that he can give space, after finishing the career of Alexander the Great, to a long chapter on the prophecies of Daniel, in which the adventures of Nebuchadnezzar are discussed at length, and the various horus of the ram and the he-goat are distributed around among the empires, in the style of a twelfth-century commentator, concluding with a labored effort to identify Daniel's "Darius the Mede" with the dethroned Astyages, whom Herodotus assures us was Cyrus's grandfather—"Darius," according to Daniel, being aged 72 when Cyrus was 60.

If Mr. Vaux, in seeking for light on Persian history, had turned to the Avesta and Minokhired, instead of to the Scriptures, he could at least have saved himself from many blunders, even if his illogical habits of thought had prevented him from doing himself credit. We doubt, indeed, whether he has ever looked into the sacred writings of the Persians, for the only reference we have observed to the Avesta (p. 9) quotes a statement which is not to be found there. A very slight knowledge of Mazdean belief would have saved him from quoting (p. 103), without correction, a passage from Dean Milman, in which Ormazd is identified with the Sun, and borrowing from Gibbon (p. 184) a speech attributed to the Sassanid Chosroes, in which he is represented as worshipping the Sun. The fact is that in pure Zoroastrianism the spirit of the Sun was not even an Amshaspand, or archangel, but only an Izad, or angel; during the later Achæmenian period the Magian nature-worship for a short time caused Mithra and Anaitis to be reverenced as next to Ormazd, but in the Sassanid revival, as shown in the Minokhired, the Sun was absolutely relegated to a position among the Seven Planets, who were leaders of the hosts of Ahriman. For a writer of the present day to accept Mazdeism as Sun-worship is to commit the most serious of blunders-only to be rivalled by the kindred one (p. 14) where the Semitic religions in general (including of course the fetishism and anthropomorphic pantheons of the Assyrians and Phænicians) are asserted to be "superior to the best which the Japhetic races have worked

In short, with the exception of a few facts derived from the study of Persian coinage, the book is a singularly bald, lifeless, and disjointed condensation of that which is to be found in almost every school-book, interspersed with dreary accounts of ruins borrowed from Ker Porter and other travellers, and written in an amorphous style, of which the following may serve as a specimen:

"It is clear that if Cyrus deserves the title of the actual founder of the empire, in that he was the first to conquer a large portion of the territory his successors ruled, Darius more, that he welded it into a consistent and well-working machine, which, indeed, it was no fault of Cyrus that he had been compelled to leave in the rough" (p. 45).

TRAVELS IN PORTUGAL.*

THE first thing to be desired in a book of travels is that the ground traversed should be little known; that it should be worth knowing is quite a secondary affair. Of more importance than this is the author's cleverness, which should be of such an order as to dissimulate, when need be, the barrenness of his theme. These two main requisites Mr. Latouche very happily combines. Portugal is of course not such a terra incognita as Afghanistan, but it lies fairly well out of the beaten track of travel, and we are not aware that it is as yet included in any of Mr. Cook's great programmes. Mr. Latouche has made an exceptionally agreeable, in fact, a very charming, book about it. And yet, upon his showing, it does not appear that Portugal is especially well worth seeing, or that the tourist world is greatly the loser by leaving it alone. It is true that Mr. Latouche pretends to speak only of the more untrodden portions of the country, holding, as he does, that enough has been said about the highways and the commoner resorts. An entertaining account of these has lately been published by Lady Jackson in her 'Fair Lusitania,' and Mr. Latouche engages chiefly to describe what Lady Jackson has not touched. It may be added-Mr. Latouche can afford the concession-that the author's weak point is the description of scenery. He has evidently an eye for the landscape, but he has not the art of sketching it very vividly-his phrase is but scantily pictorial; so that often he fails to give a very definite idea of what the traveller gains by visiting certain places, the truth being that he finds his remuneration in the picturesqueness of the scenery. Yet for all this Mr Latouche is eminently readable. Intelligent, observant, humorous, with plenty of general as well as of particular information, and with an unusual talent for putting himself in the place of other people, and judging them sympathetically and imaginatively, he is always an irreproachable companion. The main fault of his book is a certain want of method and of definiteness. It is a record partly of a residence-apparently a long oneand partly of a journey. It is not always obvious when the continuity of the journey is broken and other seasons and occasions are alluded to. Apropos of seasons, is is not always apparent to what time of the year the author refers. It would seem from some parts of his narrative that he found it comfortable to jog over the Portuguese byways on horseback in the summer; but does he recommend this course to other travellers? It is also Mr. Latouche's misfortune that he took no notes of his observations at the time they were made, and that his book is written wholly from memory. This, however, is an omission that we can forgive. There are so many hungry book-makers wandering about the world nowadays, twisting every trifle into a memorandum, and expanding every memorandum into a chapter, that we feel a real kindness for a book which has got itself written in the face of difficulties.

Mr. Latouche entered Portugal from the northwest corner, travelling on horseback across the Spanish frontier. He gives an account of a wonderful horse which he picked up at Vigo, and which carried him bravely over the northern mountains to Braganza on the eastern frontier. The decayed city and castle of Braganza give their name to the reigning dynasty of Portugal, but they appear to have impressed Mr. Latouche with nothing so much as the strong Jewish type of their inhabitants. This leads him into a digression-his digressions are frequent, but always interesting—upon the Portuguese Jews in general. The influx of Jews into the kingdom when the persecutions of Ferdinand and Isabella compelled them to leave Spain was very great; and in Portugal they found a modus vivendi which, though still hard, was easier than the Spanish rule. Vast numbers of them, however, passed on to Holland, where, says Mr. Latouche, the Portuguese Jews have always formed the cream of the great Hebrew plutocracy of Amsterdam. In another line, Baruch Spinosa was by descent a Portuguese Israelite. Many Jews, however, remained in Portugal and embraced Christianity, and Mr. Latouche affirms that their blood flows

* Travels in Portugal. By John Latouche.' New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1875.

very freely at this day in the Portuguese upper classes. It was formerly comprising on an average, in ne type, much more than half of every thought safe to call any Jew of a certain type a Portuguese, and Mr. Latouche seems to think it safe to call any Portuguese a Jew.

From Braganza the author struck diagonally through the mountains and mountain-towns to Oporto, where his picturesque ride appears to have terminated. His account of it and of his wayside adventures, his odd meetings, and his glimpses of the local superstitions, is the best portion of the book. Upon Oporto-a city which apparently has little but its wine to recommend it-he is as entertaining as the theme admits, and upon Lisbon he is reserved, although he ventures to think the beauties of Cintra overrated. From Lisbon he takes his reader southeastward by rail to Evora and its numerous Roman remains. Roman relics, he intimates, are in Portugal even importunately frequent. "I doubt," he says, "if the monumental inscriptions in all Great Britain, all the English-Roman mosaics, baths, coins, milliary columns, put together in a single county, would lie so thickly on the ground as they do in the small district round Evora, Elvas, and Beja." Mr. Latouche proceeds thence to Monsaras and Mourao-a region thick in Moorish memories-and thence by boat down the Guadiana to the southern coast. He found the people of the Southern provinces a quite different race from the mountaineers of Beira-the great province north of the Tagus-and an inferior one, being lazy, dirty, and shiftless. The sum of Mr. Latouche's observations strikes us as being that Portugal is a good country to visit after one has been everywhere else. It is thoroughly different from Spain, and apparently best described by negatives. The best scenery is not first-rate, and what remains apparently not even second-rate. There are no inns (to call inns), no architecture, no painting, no monuments, no local customs of a striking nature. Lisbon, thanks to its earthquake, is a new city, and a commodious; but if it has lost in picturesqueness, it has not gained in those resources and diversions which enliven existence in other capitals. It is beautiful but dull. There was once a Portuguese architecture, and here and there is to be seen a remnant of fine early Gothic, but for the most part the old churches have been veneered with the ugly Jesuit flamboyant of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. There never was a Portuguese school of art—though local patriotism, whose intensity is so often in direct proportion to its want of a raison d'être, has endeavored to put forward a shadowy semblance of one. Mr. Latouche, however, devotes several pages to the discussion of a certain great churchpicture at Viseu, that of the mythical "Gran Vasco," which has long been ascribed to a Portuguese hand. The picture (three subjects from the life of Sa'nt Peter) is apparently a very fine one; but Mr. Latouche sets forth with a great show of reason that it is the work of a Spaniard not unknown to fame—Luis Velasco, a contemporary of Velasquez. The best thing in Portugal, according to Mr. Latouche, is the Portuguese, whom our author evidently greatly prefers to the Spaniards. As a compliment to them, he affirms that their bull-fights are mild and tame to imbecility; but we cannot help wondering whether the compliment would not really be greater if he were able to say either that they had no bull-fights at all, or that they managed them well.

Deutsche Verfassungsgeschichte. Von Georg Waitz. 5 und 6 Band. (Kiel: Ernst Homann. 1875.)-A new instalment of Waitz's great work on the 'History of the German Constitution' is an event of the first importance in historical literature. It is fourteen years since the fourth volume was published, in 1861, and in the meantime new editions of the two first volumes have appeared, so thoroughly revised as to be almost rewritten, and the continuation of the work has been impatiently waited for. The present volumes ('Constitution of the German Empire, from the middle of the IXth to the middle of the XIIth Century') cover a period of peculiar interest and difficulty-the transition time between the reign of Charles the Great and the fully developed feudal régime. Each volume contains four chapters: 1, Die Ausbildung des deutschen Reichs-a sketch of the political history of the later Carolingian and the Saxon House; 2, Die Verbindung mit dem Kaiserthum-covering the most important external relations of Germany; 3, Das Reich und seine Theile-the internal organization of the realm; 4, Das Volk und seine Stände-the structure of society : 5, Das Lehnwesenthe feudal system; 6, Der König-royalty; 7, Der Hof, die Reichsregierung und die Reichsversammlung-the administrative system : 8. Recht und Gewalt im Reich-the legal system. Prof. Waitz's peculiar excellence as a writer, no less than as a lecturer, is his unusually clear, simple, and unimpassioned style. The results of the most profound and unwearied investigations are presented here so succinctly and luminously that the reader almost fancies that he knew it all before. It is, indeed, the summing up by a master of the conclusions reached in detail by a number of independent enquirers. There is little discussion, but very abundant references,

It will be enough to call attention to two or three of the most important points in the view of the German institutions here presented. In the first place, the writer combats vigorously (Vol. V., p. 70) the idea that the German kingdom, during the period under discussion, was in any sense a confederation : giving all weight to the elements of independence that existed in the great dukedoms, they were parts nevertheless of one united state. In relation to the connection of Germany and Italy, he likewise takes position (p. 116) against the prevailing opinion that in this connection are largely to be found the causes of the disselution and decay of the German realm. On the contrary, "in the midst of the severe contests which the kingdom had to endure at home and abroad, the German nation advanced to that stage of manifold rich life which held sway in the twelfth and in the beginning of the thirteenth century," until which time he sees "no retrogression in public relations, only a transformation (Umbildung) of the constitution." The fourth chapter occupies more than half of the volume, and is also much the most valuable, both as regards its subject and its treatment. It contains an elaborate analysis of society in the two centuries just before the full prevalence of feudalism (bis zur vollen Herrschaft des Lehnwesens) under the several principal gradesslaves, Censuales (those who paid money to their lords), Ministeriales (those who paid in services), Freemen, and Nobles. Under the head of the Freemen we have an interesting discussion upon the origin of the free population of the cities. Of single points introduced incidentally we will mention one in relation to the Jews. It is shown (p. 370) that during the period in question they were treated fairly and even liberally, being regarded as an important element of the industrial population in the growing cities; it was not until the lower classes had been excited to intolerance by the preaching of the Crusades that the public policy was changed in regard to them. Of the nobility, too, it is shown that they did not at this period form an hereditary class, but that the higher class of freemen were styled indifferently nobles, while the term prince was applied to the high officials of the statedukes, counts, and the higher ecclesiastics.

In the sixth volume Prof. Waitz still insists-in opposition to Rothupon his view that the system of benefices had an early and gradual development (p. 6), and that it was closely and essentially connected with vassalage (p. 35). The chapter is, however, as a whole, rather devoted to a description of the system than an account of its development, this baving been sufficiently traced in the former volumes. In the seventh chapter (p. 554) we find some interesting remarks upon the lack of a competent and efficient body of officials: from which resulted the necessity of a continual perambulation of his dominions by the king in person. In the eighth chapter the view already mentioned, as to the effects of the connection between the empire and the German kingdom, receives new illustration; touching the relations of the twofold office of King and Emperor, he says (p. 364), Imperium and Regnum are never strictly distinguished, but both are used to express the opposition to the priestly power, Sacerdotum. We are disappointed not to find any account of the government of the cities during this period. No doubt their vigor and glory came later; but they of course had some government now, and the more obscure the subject, the more we should rejoice at its discussion by Waitz.

It would add to the clearness of this treatise if the relations of Germany and France in the development of feudal institutions were more distinetly pointed out. There are a few points incidentally brought in, such as a hint that Germany was behind France in the development of feudalism; the statement that feudal reliefs did not exist in Germany during this period (Vol. VI. p. 28); and the interesting fact (p. 50) that in France the "fealty of the vassal received an interpretation which lays special emphasis upon the ethical signification of the relation." But the student would be grateful for a brief comparison of their elements at the close of the period treated. We are more accustomed to study mediaval institutions from the French point of view, and it is not easy, even from this admirably perspicuous work, to gather a conception of the synchronisms in their development.

The Germania, Agricola, and Dialogus de Oratoribus of Tacitus. With Explanatory Notes by George Stuart. (Philadelphia: Eldredge & Bro. 1875.)—This edition of the minor works of Tacitus is a careless compilation from a few authorities. Neither in the treatment of the text nor in the commentary is there any evidence that the editor is familiar with much of the solid work that has been devoted to Tacitus, or that he has made a thorough and sympathetic study of Tacitus himself. The text adopted is professedly Halm's, but Halm's readings are again and again silently abandoned, and especially unfair to that conscientious scholar is the ignor-

ing of the modest caution that he shows by marking many passages as corrupt or doubtful. Where, too, did Mr. Stuart find the words magnae cujusdam felicitatis esset, which are foisted into the 'Agricola,' chapter xliv... without italies and without a word of comment? After the rhetorical thanksgiving in the preface to German scholarship we naturally look, but we look in vain, for some use of or at least allusion to the fruitful labors of such authorities as Haupt and Nipperdey. For the 'Dialogus,' the editor seems not to have been even aware of Michaelis's critical recension, nor of Andresen's 'Schulausgabe' and 'Emendationes.' The garbled use of Brotier's attempt to bridge over the chasm between chapters xxxv, and xxxvi. of the 'Dialogus' neither represents Brotier's idea of the missing passage nor is it consistent with the argument at the beginning of Mr. Stuart's own notes, while the Latinity of the fragment-as, e.g., machinamenta, praesentiscebat, and publicam rem-is (pace Brotier) very questionable, certainly not Tacitean. If an American editor of the 'Germania' cannot agree with Prof. W. F. Allen's valuable monograph on the force of dignatio in that treatise, he should at least give the grounds of his own

Only once, if we mistake not, does our compiler drop his leading-strings, and then with ill-success. Certainly, an appreciation of Tacitus's conception of fate and of the empire, or a comparison of the passage with almost identical phraseology in Virgil and Livy, from whose language Tacitus drew very largely, or even a glance at Boetticher's Lexicon Taciteum, might have saved Mr. Stuart his awkward attempt at explaining urgentibus imperii fatis, 'Germania,' chapter xxxiii. The grammatical notes can be of little worth, unless the great object in reading Tacitus is drill in elementary parsing, and to the tyro in Latin what but confusion can come from the slipshod and inconsistent notes on visu (p. 163) and memoratu (p. 177)? What true idea of Roman law can one derive from the vague remarks on exceptio and formula (p. 224)?

But we had no intention of giving space to the details of this book. We have looked through its pages in vain for any appreciation of the great advance that has been made in the last twenty years in textual criticism, or in Latin scholarship, or in general philology. The great change, too, which had come over both the form and the spirit of the Latin language in the time of Tacitus, is alluded to only in a few vague and borrowed generalities. The species of success which Mr. Stuart's editions of some of the easier Latin authors have had, seems to have emboldened him to undertake a work for which he is not qualified. A judicious edition of Tacitus for American students is still a desideratum.

History of the Roman Empire, from the Death of Theodosius the Great to the Coronation of Charles the Great, A.D. 395-800. By Arthur M. Curteis, M.A. With maps. (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1875, 12mo, pp. 279.)-Mr. Oscar Browning's series of 'Historical Hand-books' deserves to be mentioned in connection with the three series of Messrs. Freeman, Morris, and Green, as an outgrowth of the new interest in the study of history in England. In character it is more like Mr. Morris's series, 'The Epochs of History,' although the authors are not so generally men of recognized eminence in their several fields. Neither is it so exclusively devoted to political history, for a history of French literature makes a part of it, and a history of modern English law is in the press. The opening volume of the series, Mr. Smith's 'History of the English Institutions,' was reviewed by us last year (see Nation, March 26, 1874); Mr. Pearson has in the press a History of England in the Fourteenth Century; and we are promised the Great Rebellion, the French Revolution, the Age of Chatham and that of Pitt, the Reign of Louis XI., the Supremacy of Athens, the Roman Revolution, and the United States. Mr. Curteis's history of the Roman Empire during that transition period when it used to be said that there was no Roman Empire at all, is a book of great merit. The style is somewhat stiff, and at times a little faulty. For instance, we suppose that "the former" and "the latter" should be avoided as far as possible, for the sake of perspicuity; but on page 213 we find them used three times, besides the far more objectionable "these" and "those" in referring to antecedent nouns. The author says that his book. which lays no claim to originality of research, is based upon a course of lectures delivered in the school with which he is connected. It has had, therefore, the best of tests as to its fitness for school work, and we will say that it seems to us admirably adapted for introducing the young reader to a vivid and genuine knowledge of this period. We mark, for instance, very strong indications of the influence of Mr. Freeman and Amédée Thierry, to both of whom the author expresses strong obligations. upon Attila and the Huns is an excellent example of his best work. It seems, however, a mistake to introduce the chapter by a quite long and really capital discussion of the "Etzel-Sage"; it would have come in very waggener (D. B., Book-keeping Simplified......(D. B. Waggener & Co.)

well at the end of the chapter, or would have answered as it is for older readers. The chapter upon Mohammed is introduced in a similar manner, but this is less objectionable. Everybody knows something about him, but the notions about Attila are very vague where they exist at all, and in his case the story should precede the discussion. It is implied, on page 30. that Constantine declared himself a Christian A.D. 313, while it was really not until ten years later. The Franks are plumply pronounced a Low-Dutch people on page 52; a matter as to which there is still felt considerable Dominii (p. 262) is of course a misprint for dominici. The maps are hardly worthy of the Look; they are clear, but might have been equally clear and yet considerably fuller.

Plays and Players. By Lawrence Hutton. (New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. 1875. Pp. 276)—The papers here collected have already appeared in an evening journal of this city, and they occasionally show the incoherence consequent upon such a method of composition, They form a sort of irregular or guerilla supplement to Ireland's 'Records of the New York Stage,' supplying harmless and gentle gossip about many of the comedies and comedians seen at the theatres of this city during the past twenty-five years. A few pages are given to Edwin Forrest and to Miss Cushman; but there is little more than bare allusion to Macready, Salvini, Ristori, or Rachel. Although Mr. Hutton is very enthusiastic about the comic drama, he seems to have but little sense of humor, or he would never have ventured the complacent insertion of the grotesque paraphrase of Tennyson's farewell sonnet to Macready (p. 232), brought down to date by the substitution of Miss Cushman's name for that of the English tragedian. A few new anecdotes, and many interesting incidents pleasantly told, are to be found in the book. In style it is much the superior of Ireland's work or of Brown's socalled 'History of the American Stage,' in which paste-and-scissors and the most high-flown fine writing are curiously commingled. The great defect of the book is the absence of anything like criticism. Mr. Hutton sees no faults, and is as indiscriminate in his praise as if he were writing an obituary or an eulogy. However, his pleasant and unpretending reminiscences will recall to the reader many evenings of enjoyment. This is the great merit of the volume. Whatever deficiencies it may have are almost atoned for by the admirable triple index of persons, plays, and play-houses, which occupies twenty pages, and doubles the value of the book.

The Childhood of Religions: embracing a Simple Account of the Birth and Growth of Myths and Legends. By Edward Clodd, F.R.A.S., author of 'The Childhood of the World.' (New York: D. Appleton & Co.)-This work, like its companion volume, 'Childhood of the World,' is an attempt to present in a simple and popular form the results of scientific research. It is not a mere piece of book-making, but has been done by a man of real knowledge, with a view to the practical aims of education, and is written in a style adapted, we should say, to the comprehension of young people of about fifteen. The author's point of view is thoroughly and avowedly rationalistic; and any person who thinks it not only desirable but possible to keep his children from the knowledge that such views exist, would of course take care not to put this book in their hands. Nevertheless, there is nothing offensive or obtrusive in it. It simply presents that comparative view of religion which has become the leading one among educated men of the present time, not so much opposing as ignoring the popular notion that there is but one genuine religion, and that all others are utterly worthless. Perhaps we should except Chap. XIII., "On the Study of the Bible," which teaches that "the Bible should be read as we read other books," and which is more controversial than most of the volume. Most of the chapters, however, treat of subjects entirely disconnected with the Christian religion-as the Aryan religions, Buddhism, Mohammedanism, etc. There are a valuable appendix and a good index.

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